DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 323 185 SP 032 566

AUTHOR Odell, Sandra J.
TITLE Mentor Teacher Programs. What Resarch Says to the Teacher.
INSTITUTION National Education Association, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 90
NOTE 36p.
AVAILABLE FROM NEA Professional Library, P.O. Box 509, West Haven, CT 06516 (Stock No. 1086-8-00, $3.95).
PUB TYPE Guides - General (050) -- Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Beginning Teacher Induction; Elementary Secondary Education; *Helping Relationship; Literature Reviews; *Mentors; *Program Development; Teacher Attitudes; Teacher Behavior

ABSTRACT

This monograph surveys the literature and provides a broad understanding of the concept of mentoring and of the application of mentoring to teaching. A synthesis is presented of the research on mentoring, including an explication of the origin, value, and essence of the mentoring concept; the rationale for mentoring beginning teachers; and mentoring goals. Specific suggestions are presented for the mentoring teachers themselves and for establishing an effective teacher mentoring program. The mentoring process envisioned consists of four phases: (1) developing the relationship, preferably outside the teaching day; (2) mutually determining the mentoring content; (3) applying effective mentoring styles and strategies, generally relating to initiator- or responder-type styles and directive or nondirective strategies; and (4) disengaging the relationship so that the beginning teacher will not feel trauma but will be able to organize colleague-support networks. A 130-item bibliography is included. (JD)

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What Research Says to the Teacher

ED323185

Mentor Teacher Programs

by Sandra J. Odell

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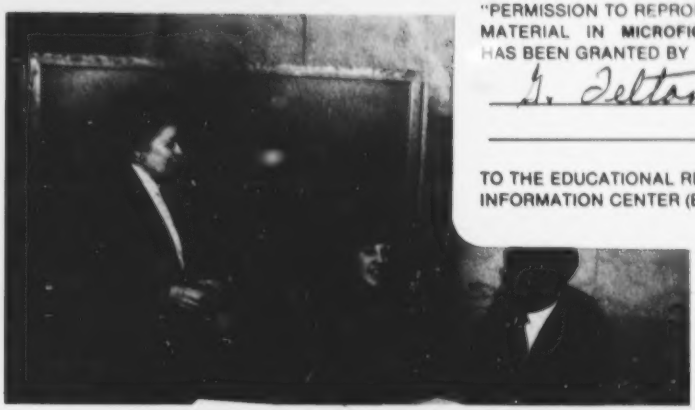

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Mentor Teacher Programs

by Sandra J. Odell

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Acknowledgment

I wish to express my thanks to Dr. Douglas Ferraro for providing suggestions and candid reactions to the manuscript. Without his support, the writing deadline would never have been met.

—Sandra J. Odell

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Printing History
First Printing: June 1990

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INTRODUCTION

The early 1980s were marked by the publication of numerous reports that expressed concerns about the quality of education in our nation (32).* These concerns provided an essential impetus to educators and legislators to develop programs to improve teaching in our public schools. A specific target in this context was the teaching efficacy of beginning teachers (2, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113). Recently, this target has been addressed by the implementation of teacher mentoring programs at both the local and the statewide levels (50, 124). Although the details of teacher mentoring programs differ considerably, all share the common goal of providing beginning teachers with a structured and supportive entry into the profession so as to ease their transition from university students to accomplished teachers.

The rapidity with which teacher mentoring programs have been implemented of late is remarkable. In 1980, Florida had the only statewide effort to provide new teachers with assistance through mentoring. In a 1987 survey of states and the District of Columbia, 11 were implementing mentoring programs, 6 were piloting mentoring programs, 15 were planning mentoring programs, and 19 reported no activity in mentoring teachers (50). A similar survey done two years later in 1989 revealed that 31 states had instituted statewide mentoring programs, an additional 11 had mentoring programs in at least some school districts, and only 8 reported no activity in mentoring teachers (124).

This monograph was written to provide the reader with a broad understanding of the concept of mentoring and of the application of mentoring to teaching. Basically, it provides an overview of what mentoring is and how to mentor teachers. What follows is a synthesis of the research on mentoring, including an explication of the origin, value, and essence of the mentoring concept. Specific suggestions for mentoring teachers and establishing effective teacher mentoring programs are derived from the mentoring literature. These are presented along with information on the content of teacher mentoring and suggestions for styles and strategies of mentoring that might be adopted by mentor teachers.

ORIGIN OF MENTORING

The origin of the term *mentor* is found in Homer's epic poem *The Odyssey* (55), wherein Odysseus gave the responsibility of nurturing his son Telemachus to his loyal friend Mentor. Odysseus ventured off to fight the Trojan War while Mentor stayed behind to educate Telemachus. This education was not confined to the martial arts but was comprehensive in that it included every facet of Telemachus' life (25). The relationship

*Numbers in parentheses appearing in the text refer to the Bibliography beginning on page 29.

between Mentor and Telemachus was not without difficulties. Mentor had the challenge of making Telemachus aware of the mistakes he made without having Telemachus become rebellious. Indeed, one of Mentor's goals was to guide Telemachus so as to help him learn from his own errors in judgment. Anderson and Shannon (5) conclude from *The Odyssey* that modeling a standard and style of behavior is a central quality of mentoring and that mentoring is intentional, nurturing, insightful, and supportive.

History is replete with examples of the caring, nurturing, sometimes challenging relationship that developed between Mentor and Telemachus in *The Odyssey*. These historic relationships include Socrates and Plato, Freud and Jung, Lorenzo de Medici and Michelangelo, and Haydn and Beethoven (83). Myths and fairy tales further abound with mentors, as, for example, Charlotte in *Charlotte's Web*, Shazam in "Captain Marvel" comics, and the Spider Woman in Native American lore (29).

In all of these historic and literary contexts, mentor figures exhibit the characteristics of advisors, helpers, or sponsors who offer insight and guidance to their proteges. A mentor, historically and traditionally defined, is an older, more experienced person who is committed to helping a younger, less experienced person become prepared for all aspects of life. The protege benefits from the guidance of the mentor and attributes successes in life to the influence of the mentor.

During the 1970s and 1980s the concept of mentoring became topical in higher education and business contexts and was the subject of many professional journal and popular magazine articles. Having a mentor was widely touted as necessary for the career advancement of business people and as a valuable component in the education and development of young adults. Ultimately, it was the recognition that mentoring had value in other fields that prompted educators to develop teacher mentoring programs.

VALUE OF MENTORING

Value of Mentoring in Business

Most of the empirical research on the value of mentoring has been performed in the field of business. In a frequently cited study by Roche (99), for example, almost 4,000 successful executive businessmen (fewer than 1 percent were women) were surveyed as to whether or not they had mentors. Mentors were defined as persons who took a personal interest in business proteges by guiding or sponsoring them in their careers. It was found that business executives who report having mentors made more money, more often followed a career plan, were better educated, sponsored more proteges themselves, and were happier in their careers than were those business executives without mentors.

Generally speaking, most other studies of mentoring in business have

substantiated that having a mentor is important to both men and women in advancing their business careers (13, 27, 28, 52, 70, 71, 80, 97, 126). However, not all successful men and women in business report having had a mentor (4).

It is interesting to analyze why some successful people have found mentoring of greater value than others. More specifically, why do only some people attribute their career successes to interactions with a mentor? As it turns out, people are not always consciously aware that someone has fulfilled the role of mentor in their careers and even need to be prompted into making that attribution. Thus, more successful business executives report having had a mentor when they are interviewed directly than when they respond less personally to a questionnaire that asks whether or not they had a mentor (83).

Attributing the role of mentor to another person is also dependent on how the term *mentor* is defined. It is more likely that a person will report having had a mentor if a mentor is defined simply as a sponsor or helper than if a more comprehensive mentoring definition is used wherein the mentor is expected to have influenced all aspects of the person's life. Indeed, Merriam (83) concluded that the highest correlation between success in business and the presence of a mentor occurs when a mentor is defined in the limited sense of one who takes an interest in another's professional career.

It is worth cautioning that having a mentor in a business context can have a down side (38, 123). This is most obvious when the mentor takes on a negative valence by falling out of favor in the business organization. Other complexities can arise when a mentor leaves the organization, sexual conflicts occur between a mentor and a protege, or the growth of the protege is limited by the perspective of the mentor.

These latter caveats notwithstanding, there is no denying that the importance of mentoring is overwhelmingly established in the world of business. At the very least, mentors, as sponsors and guides, are of value to those business proteges who are interested in career advancement.

Value of Mentoring in Adult Development

Most of us have had the experience of learning from another adult with whom we have a close relationship. Sometimes this has occurred informally, and sometimes in a more formal adult education setting. Clearly, experiences with a mentor can be an influential component of adult learning. Mentoring may be more generally vital in the development of the adult. Levinson (78) has provided substantive work that suggests that mentoring has a significant influence on the person entering the adult world and, indeed, may be the essence of adult development. Here, the reference is to a comprehensive mentor who fulfills the role of teacher, sponsor, host, counselor, supporter, guru, and advisor.

Still other writers have agreed mentoring has value, at a minimum, in helping a protege cope with the major stresses of life (107, 115) and, at a maximum, as the crux of the protege's psychosocial development in early adulthood. As an example of the latter, Burton (22) suggests that "the total absence of a mentor in young adulthood is associated with an existential vacuum in clients and a neurotic search for meaning in life" (p. 117).

The literature pertaining to mentoring adults in applied education settings is not voluminous, but it is confirmatory. For example, Bova and Phillips (15, 16) found that proteges in university settings learned risk-taking behaviors, communication skills, political skills, and specific professional skills from their university mentors. They conclude from their research that mentoring relationships are critical for developing professionals in higher education. Those few studies that have considered mentoring among schoolteachers (42, 77) found that schoolteachers generally identified their mentors as college professors and school principals.

While this section has identified the value of mentoring in adult, professional circumstances, it should be noted that mentoring by no means occurs in only these circumstances. Mentoring can and does occur regardless of the ages of the mentor and protege, and independently of the context that embraces them (29). Mentoring has an essence that is emergent and transcendent. It is to this conceptual essence of mentoring that we next turn.

ESSENCE OF MENTORING

Roles in Mentoring

Consensual agreement on the defined roles of a mentor has not been achieved in the mentoring literature. This fact can be readily gleaned from Table 1, which presents a sampler of the roles that have variously been attributed to mentors. Mentor roles have differed in terms of the number and heterogeneity of dimensions that they encompass. Referring again to Table 1, it seems to be one matter for the mentor to protect and open doors for the protege; another matter for the mentor to guide, teach, and coach the protege; and still another matter for the mentor to consult, advise, and counsel the protege. Apparently, it is within the mentor role either to accomplish something for the protege, or to teach the protege how to do something, or to advise the protege about what to do.

Not included in Table 1 are some of the more abstract, almost spiritual characteristics that are sometimes ascribed to the mentor's role (41, 95). In these instances, the mentor's role is thought to go beyond the giving of support to the giving of one's self to the protege. Typically, such a transcendental mentor-protege relationship is viewed as forming slowly over time and as becoming progressively more complex and emotionally

Table 1
A Sampler of Mentor Roles Drawn from the Literature on Mentoring

Mentor Roles	Reference
Trusted guide	Homer's *Odyssey*
Teacher, sponsor, host, counselor, supporter, guru, advisor	Levinson, 1978
Teacher coach, trainer, positive role model, developer of talent, opener of doors, protector, sponsor, successful leader	Schein, 1978
Traditional mentor, supportive boss, organizational sponsor, professional mentor, patron, invisible godparent	Phillips-Jones, 1982
Guide, supporter, challenger	Daloz, 1983
Teacher, counselor, supporter, protector, promotor, sponsor	Zey, 1984
Confidant (in addition to Schein's roles)	Gehrke & Kay, 1984
Master teacher, teacher advisor, teacher specialist, teacher researcher-linker, consultant	Bird, 1985
Colleague teacher, helping teacher, peer teacher, support teacher	Borko, 1986
Teacher, sponsor, encourager, counselor, befriender	Anderson & Shannon, 1988

Source: Table 1 originally appeared in S. J. Odell, "Support for New Teachers," in *Mentoring: Developing Successful New Teachers*, edited by T. M. Bey and C. T. Holmes. Reston, Va.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1990.

intense until it achieves a state that is beyond calculable value to the protege (41, 42).

Significance in Mentoring

A term that has been used to differentiate the more abstract, interpersonal, life-changing mentoring roles from other more limited mentoring roles is "significant mentor" (47). The concepts of comprehensiveness and mutuality represent two appropriate metrics with which to delineate significance in a mentor-protege relationship.

The concept of comprehensiveness refers to the number and variety of dimensions encompassed by the mentoring relationship. A truly comprehensive mentoring relationship incorporates the protege's work, intellectual development, spiritual growth, and personal life. A noncomprehensive

mentoring relationship is a limited one. In the extreme, a noncomprehensive mentor's role is restricted to only one dimension of the protege's life.

The concept of mutuality refers to the extent to which the mentoring relationship is voluntarily entered into and warmly regarded by both the protege and the mentor. The extremes here are easy to comprehend. Complete mutuality is realized when two individuals self-determine their mentor and protege roles with one another as a result of their mutual regard for one another. A complete lack of mutuality occurs when mentor and protege roles are assigned to individuals who do not have a high regard for one another. Between these extremes of mutuality rest two somewhat more ambiguous situations. The first is where mentor and protege choose one another but as a result of their new relationship lose their mutual regard. The second is where mentor and protege are assigned to one another but, despite this, a high degree of mutual regard is engendered.

Referring back to the traditional use of the term *mentor* in *The Odyssey*, Mentor's relationship with Telemachus was significant. Mentor impacted Telemachus in all aspects of his life. Thus, the mentoring relationship was comprehensive. Although Mentor was asked by Odysseus to care for Telemachus, resulting in an assigned relationship, the Mentor-Telemachus relationship was ultimately characterized by mutual respect, trust, and caring. Telemachus came to know that Mentor had his best interests in mind. Thus, the mentoring relationship became a mutual one.

Self-Reliance in Mentoring

Odell (92) has suggested that the ultimate outcome of a significant mentoring relationship is having proteges emerge as "automentors." The term *automentors* was coined to refer to proteges who through mentoring have become capable of mentoring themselves in a comprehensive manner. An implication here is that significant mentor-protege relationships should be finite. Mentors should work to disengage from their proteges as they become competent at automentoring.

In a similar vein, Kay (73) has argued that achieving individual self-reliance and the ability to care for oneself is the ideal end point of mentoring relationships. Indeed, he defines a mentor as a person who participates in a significant effort toward helping an individual to become self-reliant and a protege as a person who is the recipient of such assistance and a participant in the process of becoming self-reliant.

Based on the premise that self-reliance is the essence of mentoring, Kay (73) derived several principles of establishing significant mentoring. By way of overview, these principles specify that the protege's achievement of self-reliance is facilitated by mutuality, particularly when the protege receives encouragement and unconditional acceptance from the mentor. Furthermore, self-reliance is facilitated when the protege learns to general-

ize attitudes, skills, and behaviors acquired during specific mentoring episodes to new nonmentored situations. Kay (73) also notes that the more self-reliant the mentors are, the more helpful the mentors will be in stimulating self-reliance in their proteges. Self-reliant mentors will be better able to suppress their needs to nurture and provide help during the final process of disengaging from their now self-reliant, automentoring proteges.

Characteristics of Mentors

From what has gone before, one might infer that the formation of significant mentor-protege relationships occurs only as the result of a carefully orchestrated process. As it turns out, individuals do deliberately search for someone to mentor them. However, mentors and proteges more often than not happen upon one another in an unplanned way (47).

Clearly, individuals who are unselfish and cooperative are more likely to consent to being mentors. However, mentors seem to share additional characteristics that attract proteges to them. For example, Parkay (95) derived essential characteristics of a mentor introspectively based on his personal university experience with a mentor. These characteristics of a mentor include being a seminal contributor to the profession, sharing a similar style of thinking with the protege, modeling a commitment to a professional way of life, and allowing the protege to determine the direction and mode of learning.

More generally, Hardcastle (47) suggests that proteges want mentors who have high integrity and who are wise, caring, and committed to their professions. In addition, high expectations, an ability to act as a catalyst, and a sense of humor seem to be important mentor characteristics. Finally, proteges desire mentors who are able to point out their particular strengths, to motivate them to grow professionally, and to show them "new ways to be." Perhaps, after all, the essence of mentoring is best captured by the notion of mentors helping proteges to find "new ways to be." In the context of mentoring teachers, which will garner our attention next, this notion expands to experienced teachers helping beginning teachers find "new ways to be and do."

MENTORING IN TEACHING

Terminological Caveats

Within the teaching literature a number of different terms have been used to characterize programs in which experienced teachers are assigned to beginning teachers in order to ease the new professional's entry into teaching. These terms include beginning teacher assistance program,

clinical support program, teacher induction program, and mentor teacher program. While these different terms sometimes reflect important nuances among programs, more often than not they tend to reflect the current zeitgeist in educational circles. Thus, while initially the more frequently used term was *teacher induction program*, the contemporary trend is to use the term *mentor teacher program*.

In a mentor teacher program, it seems logical to label the experienced teacher who offers guidance and support as a mentor teacher. That this has not always been done is evinced by the variety of labels that have been used, including, for example, clinical support teacher, master teacher, helping teacher, buddy teacher, peer teacher, and coach. The label *mentor teacher* best suits our present purposes and, therefore, will be used exclusively here. However, it seems important at this juncture to offer some caveats to the use of the terms *mentor teacher* and *mentor teacher program*.

In the classical sense, the term *mentor* describes someone who impacts all aspects of a protege's life. Mentor teacher programs are not, as a practical matter, designed to foster comprehensiveness in mentoring. Rather than dealing with all aspects of the intellectual, personal, and spiritual growth of the beginning teacher, a mentor teacher in a school context will appropriately limit the focus of the mentoring efforts to the professional growth of the beginning teacher.

Typically, the desideratum of mutuality will not be achieved since school system considerations usually dictate that mentor teachers be assigned to beginning teachers rather than allowing mentors and new teachers to choose one another (64, 84). Moreover, as described in detail later, the sometimes imposed requirement that mentor teachers evaluate beginning teachers (35) can limit the development of significant mentoring relationships, as can the short duration of time, usually one year, that most mentor programs are in effect (19). Finally, Howey (57) has noted that because experienced teachers are generally assigned to beginning teachers who have the same roles and responsibilities as the experienced teachers, the relationships between experienced teachers and beginning teachers are characterized more by parity and collegiality than are classic mentor-protege relationships.

RATIONALE FOR MENTORING BEGINNING TEACHERS

As has been said, the primary objective of mentoring beginning teachers is to assist their professional growth. Mentoring programs explicitly assume that beginning teachers, although well prepared in content and theory, still have much to learn about teaching—that is, about putting their knowledge to work. Implicit in this assumption is the belief that beginning

teaching is but part of a more comprehensive developmental continuum that culminates in a person's becoming a fully actualized teacher. Other points on this continuum include the antecedent pre-service and induction experiences and the subsequent in-service and teacher renewal experiences. Said in other words, teacher mentor programs endorse the proposition that becoming a fully competent teacher is a lifelong process of developing as a teacher (21, 39), which can be facilitated by a mentor in the early stages of teacher development.

Stages of Teacher Development

Teacher development theories have generally pertained to either the cognitive development of the teacher, teacher concerns, or expertise in teaching. Each of these theoretical perspectives includes a series of developmental stages through which beginning teachers are hypothesized to progress before emerging as truly competent instructional leaders. Hypothetically, well-designed mentoring interventions would first establish the beginning teacher's current stage of teacher development and then serve to facilitate his or her further development toward stages of higher teaching competency (91).

Cognitive development theory postulates that there is a progression in the new teacher's stage of conceptual development from simplistic and noncreative thinking to analytic and flexible thinking. Teachers at higher stages of development presumably teach so as to produce students who evidence higher levels of thinking, self-exploration, and independence. Glassberg (43) highlights the importance of cognitive developmental theory for mentoring beginning teachers by saying:

> Studies suggest that high stage teachers tend to be adaptive in teaching style, flexible, tolerant, and able to employ a wide range of teaching models. These findings provide further evidence to support the claim that an intervention designed to promote ego, moral, and conceptual development of the beginning teacher will ultimately enhance the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom. (p. 125)

Stages-of-teacher-concerns theory recognizes that the concerns of beginning teachers are unique from those of experienced teachers. It postulates that teaching efficacy is enhanced when teachers progress through qualitatively different stages of teacher concerns (37, 43, 72). Beginning teachers are most concerned about just surviving from day to day. It is not atypical for the first-year teacher to ask "Does it get better?" or "Will I make it to the end of the week?" or "How do I do a good job and still have a life outside of teaching?" (94). Scheduling and organizing the day, functioning within the school system, and maintaining classroom discipline are other important beginning teacher concerns (117). In contrast, experienced teachers are characterized by concerns more directly related to the efficacy

of their teaching. They express concerns about the impact their instruction has on students, about collaborating with other professionals, and about teaching as a profession. From this perspective, a mentor teacher's role is to relieve the negative concerns of the beginning teacher and to guide her or him toward concerns that will potentiate rather than inhibit excellent teaching.

Berliner (9, 10) postulates that there are five stages in the journey from being a novice to arriving as an expert teacher. These stages are characterized by differences in the ways that teachers interpret happenings in their classrooms. A novice teacher has no past experiences on which to rely in interpreting classroom phenomena. Expert teachers, on the other hand, can more readily predict classroom events since their past experiences provide a frame of reference from which to distinguish the typical from the atypical and to pick out what is important from what is not. Within this theory, mentor teachers can facilitate the development of a knowledge framework in the beginning teacher by reframing their novice experiences from a more expert perspective.

Taken together, theories of teacher development seem to tell us that beginning teachers think quite simplistically and rather noncreatively as they exhibit survival concerns and try to make sense of classroom events. Mentor teachers think more flexibly as they concern themselves about impacting students from the perspective of their past experiences. Mentors have the challenge of first understanding and accepting the differences between their proteges and themselves, and of then guiding the beginning teachers to more sophisticated stages of concern and cognitive development. Mentors also have the challenge of fostering the social and emotional development of beginning teachers so as to insulate them from the reality of beginning teaching.

Reality of Beginning Teaching

Often the new teacher is shocked by the reality of beginning teaching. Lortie (79), in his comprehensive study *Schoolteacher*, was among the first to describe the perilous nature of beginning teaching and the need to socialize the novice to the culture of the school. Perhaps more than any other factor, the perils of beginning teaching have provided the rationale for mentoring these teachers (6, 49, 54, 56, 67, 68, 117).

By its very nature, beginning teaching is a precipitous enterprise. From the outset beginning teachers are given the same responsibilities as are veteran teachers. No matter how excellent the new teacher's pre-service training may have been, no training simulation accurately duplicates the reality of full-time teaching. For example, ultimate classroom responsibilities no longer rest with the cooperating teachers as they did in student teaching. Suddenly, the enormity of the job hits the beginning teacher—a

phenomenon that has been termed "reality shock" (117). Indicators of reality shock include complaining about the teaching workload, changing one's teaching in a manner that is contrary to one's belief about teaching, manifesting changes in attitudes and personality, and even suddenly leaving the teaching profession altogether (45).

Consider further the anxieties that beginning teachers must face when they are given the most difficult teaching assignments because teachers with seniority are allowed to choose the more desirable assignments (1, 96). Having to work with students of low ability or disruptive students, having many different class preparations, having to move from classroom to classroom to teach, and having responsibility for extracurricular activities no doubt compound the stresses felt by many beginning teachers (1, 61). Worse still, as many as 12 percent of all newly hired teachers are not certified in the field to which they are assigned to teach (100).

As if adjustment to their professional teaching roles is not difficult enough, beginning teachers also face a variety of personal concerns (82, 102). They may be criticized for their ideas about teaching, which some veteran teachers consider too naive or idealistic. Resultant feelings of isolation and inadequacy may be compounded by impatient family members and nonteaching friends who question unbelievably why teaching takes so much time outside of the classroom. Further, some beginning teachers enter a world of adult financial and nonstudent responsibilities that are in stark contrast to the student life from which they came (93, 117).

Beginning teachers encountering these realities may experience a collapse of the ideals they formed about teaching during teacher training. Cogan (26) observes that part of what occurs in difficult learning situations is a regression to safe and more familiar behaviors. Research has shown that as much as 57 percent of beginning teachers change from a student-centered teaching approach to an authoritarian way of teaching (8, as cited in 117) and that 91 percent of beginning teachers make concessions in using a democratic style of teaching because of the difficulties that surface in the classroom (119, as cited in 117).

It is not extreme to conclude that if the realities of beginning teaching are not dealt with constructively, and if beginning teachers are not appropriately supported and encouraged when they are most vulnerable, we risk having beginning teachers revert to less effective teaching methodologies. We also risk having promising new teachers leave the profession (102). The need to retain talented beginning teachers provides a third rationale for mentoring these teachers.

Retention of Beginning Teachers

The bases for concern about retaining beginning teachers can be succinctly stated. An early study by Charters (24) indicated that only 10

percent of the graduates of one large teacher education program decided to teach. Of those beginning teachers, 50 percent left the profession during their first two years. More contemporary statistics regarding the number of beginning teachers who leave the profession continue to be alarming. It appears that about 30 percent of beginning teachers do not teach beyond two years (105) and that as many as 60 percent of teachers leave teaching after being in the classroom for only five years (109). Unfortunately, those who leave the profession seem to be the most academically talented (104).

It is difficult to imagine any justification for the remarkable attrition among beginning teachers. Indeed, the retention of beginning teachers represents a legitimate goal of mentoring beginning teachers. A discussion of this and other mentoring goals follows.

GOALS OF MENTORING BEGINNING TEACHERS

A variety of program goals have been articulated as teacher mentoring programs emerge across the nation. Most of these goals are derived from the rationale underlying the mentoring of teachers. As such, they have three primary foci: developing beginning teachers, addressing the concerns of beginning teachers, and retaining beginning teachers.

Goal One: To provide beginning teachers with guidance from mentor teachers so as to promote the professional development of beginning teachers.

Although there is not much experimental testimony that this first goal has been met in current teacher mentoring programs, Huling-Austin (59, 62) has identified three studies where having guidance from mentors fostered the development of beginning teachers. One study (12) found that competency ratings of beginning teachers who had mentor teachers assigned to them were higher than the competency ratings of those who went without mentoring. Another study (109) found that beginning teachers who participated in a mentor program showed significant development as compared to those who did not. Specifically, mentored teachers showed development in the use of mastery learning and higher order questions, in their teaching of critical thinking, in their awareness of curriculum requirements, and in their communication with students, parents, and the public. A third study (33) found that teachers in a beginning teacher mentor program made significant gains in planning, preparing lesson plans, leading class discussions, managing students, and teaching others.

Two subgoals for achieving beginning teacher development have been described by Odell (86). These subsidiary goals for mentors are to provide an opportunity for beginning teachers to analyze and reflect on their

teaching through coaching and to build a foundation with beginning teachers so that they become self-reliant in their teaching.

Goal Two: To provide beginning teachers with support and information from mentor teachers so as to reduce the concerns of beginning teachers.

Given the perilous reality of beginning teaching, mentor teachers can significantly impact their protege teachers by providing emotional support and by transmitting positive attitudes and cultural information to beginning teachers. Beginning teachers with mentors who provide positive feedback, patience, and understanding report having fewer nonteaching concerns and feeling more competent and motivated than those without mentors (18, 125). Odell (85) tracked the impact of mentor teachers on beginning teachers across their first year of teaching. Mentor teachers were increasingly relied on for support as the school year progressed, with more than 80 percent of the beginning teachers using their mentor teachers as a means of coping by the end of the school year.

Some concerns of beginning teachers can be ameliorated if the mentors help to integrate them into the social fabric and cultural norms of the school and surrounding community. This is accomplished when the mentors communicate information about school district policies and procedures as well as prevalent school district attitudes and beliefs to the beginners (18, 81). Specifically put, the lives of beginning teachers are more free of concerns if they know how to arrange for substitute teachers, have positive attitudes toward their colleagues, and sense that they belong in the school.

Goal Three: To increase, through mentoring, the retention of beginning teachers.

Reversing the demonstrably high rate of teacher attrition is a complex and multifaceted endeavor. Clearly, teacher retention can be enhanced by increasing the status, working conditions, and remuneration of teachers. Of immediate concern here is how, through mentoring, teacher retention can be increased.

A hint about this may be gleaned from the preceding goal. All too often beginning teachers leave the profession because they become disillusioned about teaching. Presumably, if new teachers can be imbued with positive attitudes and feelings toward their work, they will be more likely to remain as teachers. In a year-end assessment of a mentor teacher program, Odell (85) found that beginning teachers sustained their positive attitudes toward teaching. When queried, 100 percent of the beginning teachers said that they would still decide to begin teaching if they had the decision to make over again.

Inasmuch as teacher mentor programs for beginning teachers have a relatively short history, there are only preliminary data regarding the

efficacy of mentoring in fostering beginning teacher retention (59, 62). What few data there are provide cause for optimism. For example, in a project conducted by Indiana State University, all of the first-year teachers participating in a teacher mentor program expressed their intention to continue teaching after their first year (109). Additionally, of the 100 first-year teachers receiving mentoring in an Alabama program (12), 96 taught the second year. Of a nonmentored control group of 100 first-year teachers in this same study, only 80 returned to teaching the second year.

In terms of longer-term retention, 24 of 25 beginning teachers who received mentoring in a Nebraska program were teaching four years later (51). Finally, in a retention study of a large New Mexico mentoring program (90), of the 89 percent of beginning teachers who could be located four years after their participation in the mentoring program, only 4 percent had left the teaching profession.

It is perhaps gratuitous to note that the degree to which the major goals of mentoring are met will depend on the efficacy of the specific teacher mentoring program. Not all teacher mentor programs are equal, nor are they inherently good. What remains to be specified, then, is how to establish a beginning teacher mentoring program that will be effective.

ESTABLISHING EFFECTIVE MENTORING

As mentoring programs for beginning teachers are established, a cast of characters emerges. First, the teachers who will receive mentoring need to be identified. In some mentoring programs only teachers who are new to the profession are the recipients of mentoring support. In other programs experienced teachers who are new to the school system also qualify for mentoring. Still broader mentoring programs include experienced teachers who are changing certification areas, such as an elementary teacher who is initiating a transition to special education. The primary objective in this latter instance is to provide instructional support in the new specialty area.

When several different categories of teachers are designated for inclusion in a mentoring program, it needs to be decided whether all should receive the same support with respect to program content, program duration, and degree of mentoring. On the surface it seems that experienced teachers who are new to the school system should need less mentoring than beginning teachers do. This was confirmed in an empirical study that compared the effects of mentoring beginning and experienced teachers during their first year in a school system (89). However, this study further demonstrated that any teacher whose teaching situation is new benefits from mentoring support.

A second component of establishing teacher mentoring programs is to identify the individuals who will be the mentor teachers. Mentor teachers are the most significant possible source of support for beginning teachers

inasmuch as no one can better provide novice teachers with specific opportunities to learn from someone already accomplished in teaching (18, 58). Moreover, the assignment of an appropriate mentor teacher is likely to be the most cost-effective intervention in a mentoring program (65). Obviously, then, considerable care should be given to the processes of choosing mentors, matching mentors with proteges, and training mentors.

Choosing Mentor Teachers

The responsibility of choosing mentor teachers often lies with local school district administrators. This can give rise to two problems in identifying effective mentors. First, the subjective judgments of some administrators, including principals, may be unreliable in identifying effective mentor teachers (98). Second, mentor teachers need to be respected as competent professionals by their peers (116, 118, 120). Mentor teachers chosen solely by administrators may not be endorsed by their veteran peers as being qualified to mentor beginning teachers. One obvious and important way around this latter egalitarian attitude among veteran teachers is to involve them in selecting the mentor teachers (39, 86). By way of extension, where a mentoring program involves a collaboration between a college of education and a local school district, college representatives should be included in the selection process (93).

Characteristics of Mentor Teachers

It is desirable to select mentor teachers who are wise, caring, humorous, nurturing, and committed to their profession (11, 47, 73). In addition, they should exhibit confidence, openness, leadership, and emphatic concern (5, 66). Within the boundaries of a mentor program, characteristics beyond these personal ones should be sought in mentor teachers.

Mentor teachers will no doubt serve as role models for classroom teaching and may be involved in demonstration teaching, teacher coaching, and explaining their own teaching strategies to beginning teachers. Accordingly, foremost among mentor characteristics is being an excellent classroom teacher (14, 121, 130). However, an excellent classroom teacher of children and adolescents is not automatically an excellent mentor teacher. After all, mentor teachers are mentoring other adults. It follows that mentor teachers need to excel at interacting with adult learners as well as in classroom situations with young learners (86, 130).

The conventional wisdom is that mentor teachers should have at least three to five years of teaching experience (116). More than extensive teaching experience, a person needs wisdom in order to be desirable as a mentor. The specific wisdom needed by a mentor teacher includes knowledge about the curriculum and content of teaching and about effective instructional strategies, including problem solving and critical thinking.

Not only should the mentor teacher evince competency and wisdom in the practice and theory of teaching, but also the mentor teacher should be able to transmit these through guidance, advice, and support. This requires the mentor teacher to be open and sensitive to the views of the beginning teacher. Mentor teachers who possess skill at reflective listening and effective questioning strategies will accomplish the mentor teacher role with the greatest mutuality. Mentor teachers likewise should be facile at conflict resolution, not only to reduce communication barriers to the beginning teacher, but also to protect, promote, and sponsor the new teacher in interactions with other teachers, school administrators, and parents.

While the mentor teacher is unlikely to impact significantly the personal domains of the new teacher, or to truly befriend or enter into an intense emotional relationship with the beginning teacher, the mentor teacher should strive to be as comprehensive as possible within the school setting. Clearly, mentors need to deal with the personal survival anxieties, self-concept issues, and reality shock experienced by beginning teachers (117).

Providing emotional support can be a seductive activity for the mentor. It is important for the mentor teacher to be able to set limits on the domains of personal and spiritual growth that will be addressed within the beginning teacher–mentor teacher relationship. This will serve to keep the interactions with the beginning teacher within the assumed competencies of the mentor teacher and to retain the primary focus of the mentoring on the development of the protege as a teacher.

Assigning Mentor Teachers

Significant mentor-protege relationships are arrived at in the ideal through the mutual choice of the mentor and the protege, particularly when they have a high regard for one another. For the most part, however, mentor teacher–beginning teacher relationships are created by assignment. This lack of initial mutuality results most often from unavoidable practical considerations in the school (e.g., who is interested and available to be a mentor, and who was hired this year as a beginning teacher).

Assigning mentor teachers to beginning teachers, as opposed to permitting mutual choice, decreases the likelihood that a particular duo will form an effective mentoring bond. Thus, it is desirable to permit teachers as much choice as is feasible in selecting with whom they will work. Where assignment is necessary, it is desirable to retain enough flexibility to permit reassignment if a particular relationship does not work.

Since some degree of assignment seems likely in mentoring programs, it is useful to discuss some of the factors that need to be considered in assigning mentor teachers to beginning teachers.

Age and Gender. While there are no data available in teacher mentoring situations that pertain directly to optimal age differences between mentor

and beginning teachers (130), the general belief is that an effective mentor will be 8 to 15 years older than a protege (78). Obviously, those mentor teachers who have been in the profession longer will have more face validity as expert teachers. On the other hand, if the age differences between mentors and beginning teachers become too large, there is the danger that the relationships will become more parental than mentoring. This is particularly so if the mentor's considerable seniority reduces his or her empathy for the concerns that beginning teachers are experiencing (101).

Differences in age can interact with differences in gender between mentors and beginning teachers. It has clearly been observed that making assignments where the genders of the mentor and the beginning teacher are different can work as well as making like gender assignments (75). Nevertheless, male-female mentoring relationships do have the liabilities of being more open to public scrutiny and of potentially creating irrelevant sexual tensions (66, 76).

Grade Level and Content Area. There is consensual agreement about the importance of assigning a mentor to a beginning teacher who is at the same grade level and who teaches the same content area as the mentor (14, 40, 58, 63, 92, 120). Simply put, a mentor who has the same experiences as the beginning teacher is more likely to be accepted as credible by the beginner. However, the realities in school districts sometimes make this difficult.

Matches may not always be achievable in small school districts, in particular, where there may be little overlap in grade level and content area among potential mentors and beginning teachers. In these circumstances, special efforts should be made to otherwise enhance the credibility of the mentors (86). This might be done, for example, by stressing to beginning teachers that the mentors have generic teaching expertise that applies across grade levels and subjects, such as the ability to stimulate students to think or to manage student discipline problems.

Teaching Style and Ideology. Parkay (95) has suggested that mentoring relationships form best when a similar style of thinking is shared by mentor and protege. Within the school this translates most directly into assigning mentor teachers by matching their teaching style and ideology to those of the beginning teachers (63). Odell (92) has previously remarked that a new teacher who is enthusiastic about teaching with, for example, an informal, open, and innovative style will be better guided, sponsored, supported, and even protected by a like-minded mentor than by a mentor who is committed professionally and personally to a dramatically different teaching style.

Once again, in small school districts where the pool of mentor teachers may be limited, the best possible approximation to a match should be

achieved. In this context it is helpful to remind ourselves that likeness in teaching philosophy and style, while important, is only one of the criteria to use in assigning mentor teachers to beginning teachers.

Physical Proximity. A final logistical criterion to be used in assigning mentor teachers is that beginning teachers should have ready physical access to their mentors. If the mentor appears too infrequently in the classroom of the new teacher, or if the new teacher must traverse the school grounds in order to be supported by the mentor, the likelihood is diminished that immediate and continuous mentoring will occur (92).

Training Mentor Teachers

The importance of training mentor teachers arises from the presumption that even excellent veteran classroom teachers have limited experience in working with adults and may not have all of the skills and knowledge necessary to be mentors. Thies-Sprinthall (114) has suggested that well-meaning but poorly trained mentor teachers may pass on the wrong set of secrets of the trade to beginning teachers.

Where possible, mentor training should go beyond simply providing an orientation for new mentors. The training also should involve an extensive set of structured learning experiences with the concepts and practices that are the bases for effective mentoring. What follows is a discussion of the content that might be included in training veteran teachers to assume the role of mentor teachers.

To begin with, a wide array of related areas of study have been suggested for the training of mentor teachers. These content areas include stages of teacher development, concerns and needs of beginning teachers, clinical supervision, teacher induction, and adult professional development (86). Beyond these, training has also been recommended in role clarification, classroom observation, and conducting conferences (58, 121), and in classroom management, student thinking, social mediation, school district needs, and teacher reflection (129). Finally, it is suggested that mentor teachers be trained to increase the self-esteem of their proteges.

Some attention has also been given to the methods used in training mentor teachers. Bowers and Eberhart (17) have suggested that mentor training be guided by a cycle of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting to create mentor teachers who are inquiring professionals. The planning phase would involve the presentation of content relevant to mentoring, followed by opportunities for new mentors to engage in guided practice, observe, and reflect about their mentoring activities.

A case study approach for training mentor teachers has also been described (23, 34). Using this approach, mentor teachers first receive technical training in the writing of cases that incorporate the knowledge that beginning teachers need to acquire. Next, mentor teachers learn how

to use these case studies with their proteges so as to help the beginning teachers to understand the features, demands, and complexities of specific teaching activities.

In a less formal context, having mentor teachers interact can be a beneficial aspect of their training. Working together, they can role play, share ideas, pool resources, and network with other mentor teachers. These interactions provide a context for mentor teachers to problem solve and to evaluate their own work with their proteges (3, 93).

In review of this part, the establishment of effective mentoring depends in large measure on the careful selection of mentor teachers, the deliberate and thoughtful matching of mentors with proteges, and the structured training of mentor teachers. It remains for us to consider the process of mentoring that underlies the work that a mentor teacher does with a beginning teacher.

THE TEACHER-MENTORING PROCESS

Equipped with their training as mentors, and appropriately matched to their proteges, mentor teachers embark on a process of mentoring beginning teachers. This process can be conceptualized as consisting of sequential phases, which culminate when the beginning teacher becomes self-reliant. While the phases of the teacher-mentoring process might be variously characterized, it is sufficiently instructive for our present purposes to consider the four phases of the teacher-mentoring process articulated by Odell (86).

Phase 1: Developing the Relationship

As stated previously, having mentor teachers and beginning teachers choose one another is difficult in schools. Since mentor teachers are likely to be assigned to beginning teachers, it is important at the outset that mentor teachers get to know their proteges as individuals and to develop trusting professional relationships. This is done most effectively outside of the teaching day or during a common planning time.

Mentor teachers frequently find it useful to meet beginning teachers somewhere off the school grounds. The informal atmosphere of a coffee shop, for example, can create a level of comfort for the beginning teacher that makes getting acquainted easier than the more formal environment of the school does. Mentor teachers report that a few informal sessions with beginning teachers typically allow each person enough time to feel comfortable with the other. Developing a strong professional relationship obviously takes time beyond these first few meetings. The positive rapport built during these initial encounters, though, can lay the foundation for building trust between mentor and beginning teachers.

A primary objective of this initial phase of mentoring is for mentor teachers to convey their support and assistance functions to beginning teachers. They should communicate that their mentor role is nonevaluative and, as such, does not directly influence the future employment of the beginning teachers. Comprehension of these points relieves some initial anxieties beginning teachers experience when they are assigned a mentor teacher. Beginning teachers are often uncomfortable with those in evaluative positions and are reluctant to discuss their teaching concerns. This can cause them to deny themselves the mentoring they need (36). Several authors have noted that beginning teachers highly value the positive feedback and supportive criticism they receive from mentor teachers, so long as the mentor teachers are not in a formal evaluation role (35, 58).

Mentor teachers come to know their proteges in a way that makes them uniquely aware of the competencies of the beginning teachers. Thus, the temptation is strong to ask mentor teachers to assess the beginning teachers. This temptation can be resisted somewhat by using mentor teachers' inputs only to confirm or disconfirm independent evaluations made by those responsible for assessing beginning teachers. Discrepancies between mentors' informal input and formal evaluation should result in reevaluation of the beginning teachers by the formal evaluative process.

Phase 2: Determining the Mentoring Content

In a series of studies conducted in a teacher-mentoring context, Odell (85, 88, 89, 90, 91, 94) has identified categories of support that are needed by beginning teachers who are being mentored. (See Table 2.)

Several points regarding these categories of support are worth noting. First, not all of the categories are of equal importance to individual beginning teachers at a particular time. The importance of the categories tends to change along with the progression of the school year and the stage of development of the beginning teacher.

For example, most beginning teachers need school system information at the beginning of the school year and at later times when future teaching assignments and contracts are being considered (94). With time, their needs for advice on scheduling, arranging the classroom environment, and student management tend to give way to their needs for support more directly pertinent to the instructional process. It is interesting to note that at the end of the school year, support needs of beginning teachers who were not mentored tend to be more of the classroom and student management variety (117), while those of beginning teachers who were mentored tend to relate more to the instructional process (48, 89, 94).

A general second point, and presumably an obvious one, is that an effective mentor teacher will be one who can tailor the support offered to the immediate needs of the beginning teacher. The mentor teacher will

Table 2
Categories of Support for Mentoring Beginning Teachers

Systems Information:	Giving the new teacher information related to procedures, guidelines, or expectations of the school district.
Resources/Materials:	Collecting, disseminating, or locating materials or other resources for use by the new teacher.
Instructional:	Giving information about teaching strategies or the instructional process to the new teacher.
Emotional:	Offering the new teacher support through empathic listening and by sharing experiences.
Student Management:	Giving the new teacher guidance and ideas related to discipline and managing students.
Scheduling/Planning:	Offering new teachers information about organizing and planning the school day.
Environment:	Helping the new teacher by arranging, organizing, or analyzing the physical setting of the classroom.
Demonstration Teaching:	Teaching while the new teacher observes (preceded by a conference to identify the focus of the observation and followed by a conference to analyze the observed teaching episode).
Parental:	Giving help or ideas to the new teacher related to conferencing or working with parents.

Source: Table 2 was originally derived from S. J. Odell, "Induction Support of New Teachers: A Functional Approach," *Journal of Teacher Education* 37, no. 1 (1986): 27.

further have to be able to change the category of support being offered to correspond with the short- and long-term variations that will occur in the beginning teacher's needs. A first step in this regard is to be able to accurately determine the needs of the protege across time.

This determination should be protege centered. That is, the mentor should offer support in the category identified explicitly by the beginning teacher. If the beginning teacher is unable to self-identify an area of needed support, the mentor should resist the temptation to proscribe. Instead, the mentor should use effective questioning to focus on trouble spots he or she has observed and guide the beginning teacher to analyze and reflect on specific aspects of the teaching experience (87).

A previously used example (86) will make this point further. Suppose a mentor teacher notices that students in a beginning teacher's classroom are disruptive. Yet the beginning teacher may be unable to identify discipline as a problem or, perhaps because of anxiety, is unable to admit that classroom control is a weakness. The mentor would do best by asking if students seemed to move from one activity to the next without difficulty or whether all students pay attention when directions are given. This matter of how to determine the appropriate mentoring content is inextricably related to the matter of effectively delivering the mentoring support.

Phase 3: Applying Effective Styles and Strategies

Interpersonal interactions differ along a number of dimensions. This results from the fact that individuals differ in personality, social skills, status, and a variety of other ways. Mentoring interactions between veteran teachers and beginning teachers also reflect these individual differences. However, within these interpersonal variations, there seem to be preferred styles and strategies for the mentor teacher to adopt so as to optimize the mentoring interactions with the beginning teachers.

Based on the concept that educators influence change differentially as a result of the "change facilitation style" that they use (46), Huling-Austin (60) has proposed "styles of mentoring" that differ in terms of implementation requirements, limitations, and mentoring outcomes. The essential continuum that differentiates among these styles is the degree of responsibility that mentor teachers assume for the growth of beginning teachers.

Anchoring one end of Huling-Austin's continuum is the responder mentor who offers only the help directly asked for by the beginning teacher. In essence, the responder mentor relinquishes the responsibility of initiating assistance. The other end of the style continuum is characterized by the initiator mentor who assumes full responsibility for initiating relevant interactions and offering unsolicited support.

Generally speaking, an initiator mentoring style is preferable to a responder mentoring style. Whereas the responder style limits the mentor to dealing only with pressing and immediate beginning teacher concerns, an initiator mentor can go beyond a particular teaching episode and guide the beginning teacher to consider more generalized and elaborate concepts of teaching. How effective an initiator-style mentor will be in accomplishing this will depend, in part, on the strategy of mentoring applied.

Strategies of mentoring, as developed by Odell (87), relate to how directive the mentor is in mentor-protege interactions. Nondirective mentoring permits beginning teachers to "work through" their teaching problems without substantive guidance. While there is merit in having beginning teachers think for themselves, the solutions they arrive at solely through self-analysis and reflection are necessarily limited by their experiences.

Mentors who are more initiators than responders are apt to adopt a directive strategy of mentoring. In the extreme, directive mentoring is authoritative. It reflects an underlying assumption that proteges best learn how to teach when they are told how to teach by a mentor (87). This undesirably extreme strategy reduces the opportunity for the mentor to facilitate the beginning teacher's development through self-reflection. Accordingly, the preferred strategy for mentors to apply is an interactive strategy where mentors raise questions about teaching and thus guide

beginning teachers to analyze and reflect on the questions raised. The result is a teacher-mentoring episode where the teachers, mentor and beginning, are "thinking together" about teaching.

One technique for applying an interactive strategy of mentoring is to adapt peer coaching (68, 106) to the mentoring context. In mentor coaching the beginning teacher identifies an aspect of a teaching episode for a mentor coach to observe. The observation follows with the mentor coach documenting the beginning teacher's activities through scripting, videotaping, or anecdotal recording. Finally, the observational record is used as a basis for analyzing the teaching episode. During this analysis, it is preferable that mentors be interactive coaches who through effective questioning and supportive feedback can stimulate the beginning teachers to reflect on their feelings and thoughts about their teaching.

An earlier offered caution worth issuing again is that the application of effective mentoring styles and strategies will be impeded, no matter what technique is invoked, if the mentor is put in the judgmental role of making summative assessments. Mentoring styles and strategies, effectively applied, are a matter of assistance, not assessment (35, 36, 58, 89).

Phase 4: Disengaging the Relationship

Theoretically, mentor teacher–beginning teacher relationships are finite and terminate when the protege becomes self-reliant as an instructional leader in the classroom. However, there does not seem to be a theoretically optimal duration for a teacher-mentoring relationship. While at face value it might seem that longer-duration relationships would be desirable, even well-formed mentoring relationships yield diminishing returns over time.

As a practical matter, most current teacher mentor programs are designed to endure for no more than the first year of teaching (64). Accordingly, the mentor may need to prepare the protege to disengage from the relationship early on—perhaps before the protege is fully self-sufficient.

This disengagement need not be traumatic for the beginning teacher. The mentor teacher can help beginning teachers to establish their own support networks by interfacing with other teachers. In the ideal, healthy school, faculties are characterized by an interdependence among teachers. While it is unlikely that support from colleagues will be as immediate or complete as that from mentors, new teachers do quickly appreciate why veteran teachers value consultations with other teachers as a prime source of teacher knowledge (7, 122). This transition from mentor-teacher support to colleague-teacher support is accomplished more smoothly if mentor teachers have made their proteges sophisticated about the resources available to them in the school district and have encouraged them to develop sources of personal support outside of the school context.

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

It is difficult to capture in words what it means to learn to teach. At the least, it is the lifelong developmental process of increasing technical teaching competencies, acquiring relevant knowledge and expertise bases (31, 74, 108), and observing, analyzing, and reflecting on one's self within the context and content of teaching (20, 127). We have described above how effectively mentoring beginning teachers can help them learn to teach. In so doing, we have narrowly focused on the characteristics, roles, and processes of the mentor teacher and on the benefits for the beginning teacher. Before concluding, it seems appropriate to broaden this perspective.

First, the benefits of mentoring beginning teachers are not accrued simply by establishing a mentor teacher–beginning teacher relationship. The success of the relationship depends on its being contained within a much more comprehensive program of teacher support (53). Mentoring teachers is a supplement to, not a substitute for, school orientations, in-service training, university courses, and formal and informal collegial collaborations that are supportive of learning to teach. Each of these sources of support in a comprehensive program serves to potentiate one another. Consequently, the total support the new teacher actually experiences in a comprehensive program is greater than that which would be predicted from simply adding together the separate sources of support.

A broader perspective also permits us to appreciate that mentoring has benefits beyond those for beginning teachers. While beginning teachers experience growth in their teaching, improved self-concepts, positive attitudes about teaching, and greater motivation to remain as teachers, they are by no means the sole beneficiaries of the mentoring process.

Consider the benefits for mentor teachers. As a by-product of their mentoring training, become more aware of their own development as teachers and of the rationale for their own teaching practices (44, 45). While interacting with proteges, mentors must analyze and reflect on their own teaching. Interacting with other mentor teachers provides mentors with an appreciation for diversity in teaching styles and settings. Mentoring simply improves the teaching of the mentor (45, 48).

Finally, it seems natural enough when we, as teachers, take umbrage at being criticized for not being sufficiently efficacious in the classroom and offer resistance when programs are initiated or, worse yet, externally mandated to improve our teaching. It is hoped that this discussion of the various aspects of mentoring teachers provides at least some of the bases for making the establishment of comprehensive, structured mentor teacher programs not only palatable but also highly desirable. Mentoring teachers seems to provide an "all win" situation. The beginning teacher is improved, and the mentor teacher benefits. Better teachers mean better schools. Better schools mean better development of our children.

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